

Properties of Partially Denatured Whey Protein Products: Viscoelastic Properties

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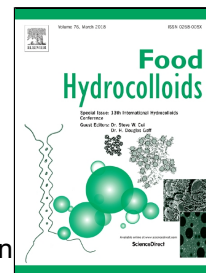
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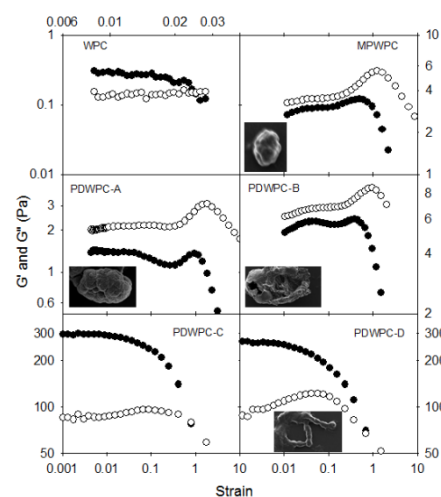


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Graphical Abstract



1 Properties of Partially Denatured Whey Protein Products: Viscoelastic
2 Properties

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4 Zhuo Zhang^{1,2}, Valeria Arrighi³, Lydia Campbell^{1,4}, Julien Lonchamp^{1,5} &
5 Stephen R. Euston^{1*}

6

7 ¹Institute of Mechanical, Process & Energy Engineering, School of Engineering
8 and Physical Sciences, Heriot-Watt University, Edinburgh, EH14 4AS, UK

9 ²Current address - College of Food Science and Technology, Huazhong

10 Agricultural University, Wuhan, 430070, China & Key Laboratory of

11 Environment Correlative Dietology, Ministry of Education, Wuhan, 430070,

12 China.

13 ³Institute of Chemical Sciences, School of Engineering and Physical Sciences,

14 Heriot-Watt University, Edinburgh, EH14 4AS, UK.

15 ⁴Nandi Proteins Limited, Nine, Edinburgh Bioquarter, Lab 13, Edinburgh, EH16

16 4UX, UK.

17 ⁵Current Address - School of Health Sciences, Queen Margaret University,

18 Edinburgh, EH21 6UU, UK.

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Abstract

Partially denatured whey protein products (PDWPC's) can be classified based on the viscoelastic properties of their solutions. Strain sweeps show that PDWPC-A and -B and microparticulated WPC (MPWPC) with compact, spherical aggregated particles exhibit a strong strain overshoot. PDWPC-C and -D, on the other hand, which have open, elongated porous particles show a weak strain overshoot. The concentration dependence of the elastic modulus G' in the linear viscoelastic region has a biphasic power law dependence with concentration for all protein products studied, except for WPC where G' is independent of protein concentration. Frequency sweeps suggest that MPWC solutions form a strong physical gel at all concentrations above 14% (w/w). PDWPC-A and -B form weak gels over the same concentration range. PDWPC-C and -D also form weak gels at 14% protein (w/w) but strong physical gels at higher concentrations. The frequency dependence of G' and G'' for all aggregated proteins show a power law dependence indicating fractal type structures. For all solutions above a critical concentration, the fractal dimensions span the range 1.6-2.3, indicating a range of gel network structures from open and diffuse to compact and dense. Adherence to the empirical Cox-Merz rule was observed in PDWPC-A, -C and -D at concentrations of 14 and 16% (w/w) protein, suggesting liquid-like behaviour. At higher protein concentrations the deviations from the Cox-Merz rule suggest more pronounced elasticity in the structure. For PDWPC-B, the behaviour is

complex, with deviation from the Cox-Merz rule at low frequencies/shear rates, but correspondence at higher frequencies/shear rates at all concentrations. This indicates a frequency-dependent change from liquid-like behaviour over long timescale deformations, to a solid-like behaviour at short timescale deformations. MPWPC solutions of all concentrations do not follow the Cox-Merz rule, suggesting solid-like behaviour. The PDWPCs exhibit a complex rheological behaviour which suggests they could be versatile thickening, texturizing and fat replacement ingredients that will offer food manufacturers greater control over the texture of formulated fluid foods.

Keywords: Partially denatured whey proteins; oscillatory rheology; frequency sweep; fractal; Cox-Merz rule

Introduction

Heat-processed whey proteins have been investigated as thickening and gelling ingredients in foods, and in particular as potential fat replacers (McClements, Chung & Wu, 2017). It has been widely reported that whey proteins that are partially denatured with pre-heat treatment at low ionic strength exhibit gelling properties at room temperature and thus are defined as cold-gelling whey protein concentrates (WPC's) (McClements & Keogh, 1995). The cold-setting gelation could be of great value in the food industry, and would meet the thickening requirement for some special foods that are not suitable for heat processing.

In previous papers (Zhang, Arrighi, Campbell, Lonchamp & Euston, 2016a; 2016b) we reported on the manufacture of partially denatured whey protein products (PDWPCs) that exhibit differing viscosity modifying properties dependent on the method used for processing. More specifically, we showed that by controlling the degree of disulphide bonding between aggregates (by altering the temperature, pH and heating time) it was possible to form PDWPC particles of differing degree of protein denaturation and particle size and morphology (Zhang et al., 2016a). All PDWPCs gave solutions of increased viscosity compared to the starting whey protein concentrate solution (Zhang et al., 2016b). Particles with a high degree of denaturation and an open phase separated morphology gave much higher viscosities than particles of a lower

degree of denaturation that had a more compact globule-like structure (Zhang et al., 2016a). These differences in viscosity are believed to arise through differences in the way the particles interact with the water hydration shell around the proteins, and the interactions between the particles themselves. A detailed study of the flow properties of PDWPCs revealed a complex dependence of the shear viscosity on the particle morphology, protein concentration in solution and shear rate (Zhang et al., 2016b). The surface structure of protein particles also plays a role, with particles of similar size but with a rougher surface giving a higher viscosity for the same protein concentration. These studies indicated that by controlling the aggregated whey protein particle structure through changes in processing conditions, it is possible to make protein products with a range of viscosity modifying potential that could find application in food systems. To understand better the rheology of PDWPCs we have extended our studies to look at the viscoelastic properties of their solutions, and in particular strain and frequency dependent properties.

4 Material and methods

Protein solutions

Commercial protein products that we have characterised previously (Zhang et al., 2016a) were used for these studies. A whey protein concentrate (WPC) Lacprodan 87 (Arla Foods Ingredients, Denmark), a microparticulated WPC

(MPWPC) (Simplesse® 100[E], CP Kelco UK Limited, UK) and a series of partially denatured whey protein (PDWPC) products, labelled PDWPC-A, PDWPC-B, PDWPC-C, and PDWPC-D (Nandi Proteins, UK) were dissolved in deionized distilled water at room temperature to make solutions with protein concentrations of 6%, 9%, 12%, 14%, 16%, 18% and 21% (w/w). The solutions were stirred gently for at least 1 h to allow hydration of the proteins. Previous results (Zhang et al., 2016b) have shown that hydration (as assessed by change in the constant shear viscosity with time) is complete in under an hour for all protein particles. The pH of all solutions was in the range 6.7-7.0 and the pH was not adjusted before testing. The same procedure was repeated for a further set of 21% (w/w) protein solutions, except that acetic acid (≥ 99.7 w/w %) (Fisher Scientific, USA) was added to adjust the pH to 4.5. The processing conditions used to prepare the PDWPC's and their properties have been reported by us elsewhere (Zhang et al., 2016a). Briefly, the PDWPC's were processed at differing temperature/pH combinations, 73 °C/pH 6.5, 72.5 °C/pH 6.4, 72.5 °C/pH 7.0, 74 °C/pH 7.0 giving a degree of denaturation of 65, 45, 51 and 98% for PDWPC-A, -B, -C and -D respectively.

Oscillatory rheology

Oscillation measurements were performed with controlled stress mode using a Bohlin Gemini rheometer (Malvern Instruments, UK), with 4°/40 mm cone and plate at a temperature of 20 °C. Prior to oscillatory testing, the linear

viscoelastic region (LVER) was found by amplitude sweep measurements taken at a frequency of 1 Hz. A stress/strain combination in the LVER was chosen to use for the frequency sweep measurements to ensure that during these tests the stress and strain was maintained below that which would disrupt the solid structure of the solutions.

Frequency sweep measurements were performed in the range from 0.001 Hz to 15 Hz, so that the largest angular frequency, ω , is of the order of 100 rad/s.

Oscillatory measurements in the linear viscoelastic region are often employed for the investigation of gel systems, since the solid and liquid responses to shear stress can be distinguished (Clark, Kavanagh, & Ross-Murphy, 2001; Ikeda & Nishinari, 2001a). Comparing the storage (G') and loss (G'') moduli with each other allows to define a system as having solid-like ($G' > G''$), liquid-like ($G' < G''$), or critical gel ($G' = G''$) behaviour (Barnes, 2000; Barnes, Hutton, & Walters, 1989; Goodwin & Hughes, 2008; Macosko, 1994; Morrison, 2001).

Moreover, the relationship between the dynamic moduli (G' , G'') and the observation time, (represented experimentally as the frequency, ω , of oscillation) reveals the structure of the gels. Vilgis and Winter (1988), proposed a power law relationship between G'/G'' and ω for self-similar or fractal structures for chemical gels, which has been proven to be valid for physical gels (Miyoshi & Nishinari, 1999).

5 Results and discussion

To obtain the dynamic viscoelastic properties, the linear viscoelastic region of a material must be defined first, i.e. where linearity between strain and stress is observed (Barnes, 2000; Barnes et al., 1989; Goodwin & Hughes, 2008; Macosko, 1994; Morrison, 2001). Experimentally, this linear viscoelastic range is obtained from strain sweep measurements (Ikeda & Nishinari, 2001a). Representative strain sweeps at 21% protein content are plotted for all protein products in Figure 1. For WPC solutions of all concentrations the strain sweep data (not shown for protein concentrations 6-18%) an LVER was observed for all protein concentrations at low strains (below strain 0.02) in agreement with results of other researchers (Ikeda & Nishinari, 2000; 2001a). The G' was always higher than G'' in these LVER regions, suggesting significant protein-protein interaction and solid-like behaviour in this region. Ikeda & Nishinari (2000; 2001a) explain this in terms of a colloidal crystal-like behaviour where the proteins interact through long-range electrostatic interaction to form an ordered structure. In a previous study on the concentration dependence of shear viscosity in PDWPC solutions (Zhang et al., 2016b) we observed constant shear viscosity at low shear rates that was independent of WPC concentration. We interpreted this as evidence of ordered, solid-like colloidal crystal phases. These have been observed by others (Matsumoto & Inoue, 1996; Ikeda & Nishinari, 2000; Ikeda & Nishinari, 2001a; Ikeda & Nishinari, 2001b) for protein solutions at low shear rates, and have been attributed to

long-range, but weak repulsive electrostatic interactions between proteins.

Hyun et al. (Hyun, Kim, Ahn & Lee, 2002) have defined at least four types of large amplitude oscillatory strain (LAOS) behaviour which depend on the interactions between the microstructure elements in the solution. These are type I, strain thinning (both G' and G'' decreasing with increasing strain); type II, strain hardening (both G' and G'' increasing); type III, weak strain overshoot (G' decreasing, G'' first increases followed by a decrease); type IV, strong strain overshoot (both G' and G'' increase followed by a decrease). The type of strain sweep behaviour seen for the WPC solutions is the so-called type I behaviour as described by Hyun et al. (2002). In type I behaviour there is an LVER region, followed by decreasing G' above a critical strain (strain thinning behaviour). Type I behaviour is common in polymer solutions and its physical explanation is similar to that for shear-thinning behaviour in solutions, i.e. at low shear rate/strain the generated stress is too low to disrupt the structure, but as the shear rate/strain increases proteins align along the flow direction. This type of strain sweep behaviour is illustrated in Figure 1, where the strain sweep for WPC at a concentration of 21% protein is plotted.

MPWPC and the PDWPC solutions show a different type of strain sweep behaviour compared to WPC. The protein products show a strain thinning behaviour at lower protein contents (9% and below for MPWPC, 18% and below for PDWPC-A, and 14% and below for PDWPC-B, PDWPC-C and PDWPC-D, data not shown). At higher protein contents, the strain sweep

behaviour changes to the type III or type IV behaviour described by Hyun et al. (2002). This type of behaviour is seen in Figure 1 where the strain sweep at 21% protein is plotted for all protein products. Type III behaviour, which is shown by PDWPC-C and PDWPC-D is characterised by a local maximum in the G'' curve (Figure 1) above the LVER. This is found, typically, in systems such as concentrated emulsions (Bower, Gallegos, Mackley & Madieto, 1999) and dispersed hydrogel spheres (Wyss et al., 2007). This type of behaviour, which is termed weak strain overshoot, is believed to be due to changes in the structure of flocs of particles under the action of the oscillatory shear stresses, although the exact mechanisms appear to depend on the nature of the system. Raghavan and Khan (1995) explain the appearance of weak strain overshoot as being due to an increase in the floc size at a critical stress/strain. Others (Tirtaatmadja, Tam & Jenkins, 1997) suggest this is because of an increase in the effective volume of the flocs. Parthasarathy & Klingenberg (1999) take a slightly different view and believe the increase in G'' is due to small rearrangements of floc structure followed by larger rearrangements that lead to the decrease in G'' again at larger strains. Type IV behaviour, or strong strain overshoot, is displayed by MPWPC, and PDWPC's A and B and is characterised by a maximum in both G'' and G' (Hyun et al., 2002). This is believed to arise when there are relatively strong inter-particle interactions such as hydrophobic association. These results suggest that the MPWPC and PDWPC's A and B have stronger inter-particle interactions in solution

203 compared to PDWPC C and D, even though the plateau G' values are lower.
204 These results agree with our earlier study of the shear viscosity behaviour of
205 the protein products which showed that MPWPC, PDWPC-A and PDWPC-B
206 have a strong time dependence for viscosity recovery from a step change in
207 shear rate from 1 s^{-1} to 100 s^{-1} back to 1 s^{-1} (Zhang et al., 2016b), whereas
208 PDWPC's C and D recover quickly. This again also indicates stronger
209 interactions in the MPWPC and PDWPC's A and B that are slow to reform
210 when high shear is removed. To explain the higher G' in the LVER and the
211 higher viscosity for a given shear rate (Zhang et al., 2016b) for PDWPC's C
212 and D, it should be noted that these have a much larger particle size than the
213 other aggregated proteins, and for PDWPC-D we have observed a very open,
214 porous particle structure (Zhang et al., 2016a). This, we believe, leads to a
215 greater hydrodynamic effect on the viscosity than MPWPC and PDWPC's A
216 and B, even though the latter apparently have stronger interactions in solution.
217 Therefore, in PDWPC-C and D solutions hydrodynamic interactions must be
218 dominating over other types of inter-particle interaction. The aggregated
219 protein products also differ from WPC solutions in terms of the relative
220 magnitude of the G' and G'' . For MPWPC, and PDWPC's A and B the G'' is
221 higher than G' at all protein concentrations, suggesting that the particle
222 solutions dissipate the applied strain mainly through viscous flow rather than
223 storing the applied strain as elastic energy. This is the case also for PDWPC-C
224 and D at the lower solution concentrations (14% and below for both), with a

change to elastic response (G') dominating over viscous flow (G'') at higher concentrations.

The concentration dependence of the constant plateau value of G' in the linear viscoelastic region for the different protein solutions is shown in Figure 2. This figure shows that for WPC the G' in the LVER is independent of protein content which was consistent with the findings of Lizarraga et al. (Lizarraga, De Piante Vicin, González, Rubiolo & Santiago, 2006). We also observed the same independence of shear viscosity on protein content for WPC at low shear rates in our previous paper (Zhang et al., 2016b). The aggregated protein products all show a weak dependence of G' on concentration at the lower protein concentrations. As the protein concentration increases the elastic modulus G' starts to increase at a greater rate and follow a power law dependence, i.e. $G' \sim c^m$ where c is the protein concentration and m is the slope of the linear best fit lines in Figure 2. These power law trends at high protein concentrations suggest increased interactions between protein molecules. It was also found that the concentration dependence, i.e. the values of m , as shown in Table 1, of MPWPC and PDWPC-A and PDWPC-B were much smaller than those of PDWPC-C and PDWPC-D. This suggests weaker structure formed by the former ones, while much stronger aggregates, such as network or physical gel existed in the latter ones (Xu et al., 2013). Others have observed a power law relationship between elastic modulus and concentration for both polymer solutions and protein gels. The value of the exponent m varies between protein

types. Ferry (1948, 1980) found a value of $m=2$ for gelatin with higher values in the range $m = 2-7$ found for other protein gels (Bikbow, Grinberg, Antonov, Tolstoguzov & Schmandke, 1979; Clark, 1989; Kohyama, et al. 1992; Tokita et al. 1985; Vreeker et al. 1992). This includes $m= 5$ for soybean globulins (Bikbow et al. 1979), $m = 3.4$ for soybean 11S globulin (Kohyama & Nishinari, 1992), $m = 4$ for casein (Tokita, Niki & Hikichi, 1985), and $m = 4.1$ for whey protein isolate (Vreeker, Hoekstra, Den Boer & Agterof, 1992). From Table 1 it can be seen that the MPWPC and PDWPC-A and PDWPC-B solutions studied here fall within this range of $m=2-7$, but PDWPC-C and PDWPC-D have higher values of m suggesting the latter form gels that are more strongly associated in solution than corresponding heat set WPC gels. Also presented in Table 1 is the crossover concentration, at which the G' starts to increase rapidly in Figure 2. Presumably, this crossover concentration corresponds to a change in the interaction between the aggregated protein particles, and may correspond to a concentration where hydrodynamic interactions between the particles become important. We also observed a crossover concentration for the equilibrium shear viscosity (Zhang et al. 2016b) at high (100 s^{-1}) and low (0.001 s^{-1}) shear rates, which occurred at similar concentrations.

To probe the oscillatory response of the solutions of the aggregated protein samples further, frequency sweep measurements were employed. These measurements were carried out for solutions of concentration above 14% w/w.

269 In Figures 3-7 frequency sweeps and Cox-Merz plots of different protein
270 solutions are shown. Frequency sweeps determine how the material responds
271 to a constant deformation applied over different timescales. Since the time
272 over which the oscillation is applied is equal to the reciprocal of the frequency,
273 low frequency measurements correspond to long time (slow) deformation, and
274 high frequencies to short time (rapid) deformations. The frequency (ω)
275 dependence of G' and G'' can give an indication of the type of structure present
276 in the solution. At strains in the LVER region, the frequency sweep can be
277 classified into three general types. Weak gels, such as entangled polymer
278 solutions exhibit a strong dependence of G' with ω , and can exhibit a
279 crossover of the G' and G'' curves indicating a change between solid-like
280 behaviour and liquid-like behaviour. Strong, cross-linked gels have only weak
281 dependence of G' on ω and G' always greater than G'' . In between these two
282 types are the physical gels with some frequency dependence of G' but no
283 G'/G'' crossover. Based on these criteria we can classify the gel behaviour of
284 our aggregated whey protein products. For MPWPC, it is found that G' is
285 always larger than G'' at all protein concentrations studied (Figure 3).
286 Furthermore, the G' has a relatively weak dependence on ω . This suggests the
287 formation of a solid-like physical gel of the microparticulated proteins.
288 PDWPC's A and B (Figures 4 & 5) show a different type of behaviour. Both
289 show a greater dependence of G' on ω than MPWPC. In addition, for PDWPC-
290 A the G'' is always higher than G' , other than at 21% (w/w) where the two

moduli are virtually the same at all frequencies. Similarly, for PDWPC-B the G'' is higher than G' up to 21% protein, at which concentration G' now dominates over G'' . This behaviour is more characteristic of a weak gel network. With PDWPC-C and PDWPC-D the type of gel formed depends on concentration (Figures 6 & 7). At 14% both PDWPC-C and PDWPC-D form a weak gel (relatively strong dependence of G' on ω , with some evidence of a G'/G'' crossover), but formation of physical gels at higher concentrations where G' is always significantly higher than G'' .

The Cox-Merz rule is an empirical observation (Cox & Merz, 1958) that for isotropic fluids there is direct correspondence between the complex viscosity measured in a frequency sweep, and the shear viscosity measured as a function of shear rate. Young (2015) states that this means that a fluid that is predominantly a liquid (Newtonian) will obey the Cox-Merz rule, whilst those that are elastic, or Non-Newtonian fluids will not. Thus, adherence (or otherwise) to the Cox-Merz rule can be used to assess further the structure in a system.

Plots of complex viscosity and shear viscosity for the MPWPC solutions (Figure 3) show deviation from the Cox-Merz rule at all concentrations, with complex viscosity higher than shear viscosity at all shear rates and frequencies ω . Such behaviour suggests that the solid-like structure formed in these solutions is susceptible to disruption at large strains (Ikeda & Nishinari, 2001a; Lizarraga et al., 2006). Renard *et al.* (Renard, Robert, Faucheron &

Sanchez, 1999) observed similar phenomenon in MPWPC and suggested that it was due to flocculation of the microparticulated proteins at low shear stresses and disruption of these flocs by large shear stresses and strains.

The complex viscosity of PDWPC-A solutions (Figure 4) was found to be close to the shear viscosity at concentrations of 14% and 16%, indicating that these solutions followed the Cox-Merz rule and thus, aggregation of proteins was absent or was weak. This would indicate weak interparticle forces and thus fragile aggregates of proteins existing in these solutions. At 18% and 21% solutions of these proteins the complex viscosity is always higher than the shear viscosity suggesting the occurrence of strong interparticle forces and formation of strong aggregates of protein molecules in these solutions.. The Cox-Merz behaviour for PDWPC-B is also complex (Figure 5). At all concentrations deviation from Cox-Merz behaviour is seen at lower shear rate/ ω , but at higher shear rate/ ω convergence of complex and shear viscosity is observed, suggesting solid-like behaviour over long time scale deformations and liquid-like behaviour at short timescale deformations.

Adherence to the empirical Cox-Merz rule was observed only for the 14% and 16% solutions of PDWPC-C and PDWPC-D, although as discussed for PDWPC-A and PDWPC-B there was some divergence of shear viscosity from complex viscosity at low shear rates/ ω . This would indicate weak interparticle forces and thus fragile aggregates of proteins existing in these solutions. At 18% and 21% solutions of these proteins the complex viscosity is always

higher than the shear viscosity suggesting the occurrence of strong interparticle forces and formation of strong aggregates of protein molecules in these solutions. Large increases were observed in G' , G'' , and η^* for the PDWPC-C and PDWPD solutions above 18%, which were much larger than those of MPWPC, PDWPC-B and PDWPC-B at the same concentrations, suggesting a strong network or physical gel formed by the aggregated protein particles.

The structure of the MPWPC and PDWPC solutions can be further probed by following the frequency dependence of G' and G'' . Close to the gelation point of branched polymers both G' and G'' follow the scaling rule G' or $G'' \sim \omega^n$ and the complex viscosity $\eta^* \sim \omega^{n-1}$ (Muthukumar, 1989). Several attempts have been made to relate the exponent n to the structure or fractal dimension of gels. The fractal dimension is often used to characterise the structure of aggregated or gelled systems (Hagiwara, Kumagai, Matsunaga & Nakamura, 1997). Computer simulations have been used to establish the theoretical fractal dimension (d_f) value for two limiting forms of aggregation – diffusion limited (DLA) and reaction limited (RLA) (Witten & Sander, 1981; Weitz, Huang, Lin & Sung, 1985). In DLA, particles collide and stick together in a rigid structure that does not rearrange with time. Aggregates of gels formed from this type of aggregation are open and diffuse, and are characterised by fractal dimensions around 1.8. In RLA, on the other hand, particles aggregate more loosely, and the aggregates formed are able to rearrange over time.

Aggregates formed via RLA have a more compact, dense structure with a fractal dimension of around 2.1. The value of $d_f = 1.8$ is the lower practical limit for 3-dimensional systems. The upper limit for d_f is the Euclidian dimensionality of the system, i.e. 3 for 3-D systems and 2 for 2-D systems. Percolation theory predicts that (Stauffer, 1985),

$$n = \frac{d}{d_f + 2} \quad (1)$$

where d is the Euclidian dimensionality of the system ($d=3$ in this case) and d_f the fractal dimension. For percolation theory, $d_f = 3$ corresponds to $n=0.6$, and we would expect fractal gels to have $n>0.6$. Muthkumar (1989) however, found very small values of n for polymer solutions close to the gel point, which would give unrealistically high (>3) d_f values based on percolation theory (eqn. 1). Doi & Edwards, (1986) explained this as being due to the screening of the excluded volume effects due to high concentration of polymers. Muthkumar (1989) derived an alternative relationship for n , taking account of screening excluded volume effects, as,

$$n = \frac{d(d + 2 - 2d_f)}{2(d + 2 - d_f)} \quad (2)$$

The value of n for the scaling of G' , G'' and η^* for the MPWPC and PDWPC's was calculated and is presented as an average of the three in Table 2 along with the calculated average d_f . From the discussion above, we would expect d_f to fall approximately within the range 1.8 - 2.1. Values of d_f lower than 1.8 have

379 been observed for fibrillar aggregates formed by polyvinyl chloride (Dahmani,
 380 Fazel, Munch & Guenet, 1997) where the aggregate takes a more linear form.
 381 Similar fibrillar gels are not unknown for proteins (Nicolai & Durand, 2013). For
 382 protein gels, d_f higher than 2.1 but lower than 3 is not uncommon at higher
 383 protein concentrations as the packing density of the molecules can be high,
 384 and restructuring of the gel after formation is common (Eleya, Ko &
 385 Gunasekaran, 2004). Percolation theory assumes that polymer solutions show
 386 fractal properties close to the percolation threshold, i.e. the concentration at
 387 which a percolating network just forms. When fractal dimension is calculated
 388 using percolation theory (eqn. 1) for all samples, a wide range of d_f values are
 389 found. For MPWPC, the d_f values are all $\gg 3$. This suggests that at 14%
 390 MPWPC and above we are above the percolation threshold and so percolation
 391 theory does not hold. If we look at the crossover concentration (m) in Table 1,
 392 we see that this is about 12%. Therefore it is not unreasonable to suggest that
 393 the crossover concentration in Figure 2 might correspond to the percolation
 394 threshold, explaining why d_f is indeterminate above the crossover
 395 concentration. A similar result is observed for PDWPC-C and PDWPC-D
 396 where d_f calculated from eqn.1 are large at all concentrations of 14% and
 397 above, suggesting the solutions are above the percolation threshold. Again,
 398 from Table 1 we see that the crossover concentration for these two protein
 399 products is 12%, i.e. below the concentrations where d_f is calculated in Table
 400 2. For PDWPC-A and PDWPC-B the results are more complex. For PDWPC-A

the crossover concentration in Table 1 is 16%. At 16% PDWPC-A solutions and below, the d_f calculated from percolation theory is less than 1.8, and above 16% it is high and close to 3. This again suggests that percolation theory does not hold for PDWPC-A at these concentrations and that the percolation threshold is between 16-18%. Similarly, for PDWPC-B the observed crossover concentration is also 16%. In this case, the 16% solution of PDWPC-B gives a sensible value for d_f calculated from eqn. 1, but below this concentration $d_f < 1.8$ and above 16% it is > 3 . These results suggest that the percolation threshold for PDWPC-B solutions is close to 16%, thus adding more weight to the supposition that the crossover concentration is equivalent to the percolation threshold.

If screening of the excluded volume contributions is assumed in these solutions, and Muthkumar's equation for calculating d_f is used (Muthkumar, 1989) more sensible value of fractal dimension are found at concentrations close to and above the crossover concentration. For MPWPC eqn. 2 yields d_f values of 2.1-2.2 at all concentrations, values that are close to that for RLA. Winter and Chambon (1986) and Vilgis and Winter (1988) proposed the power law exponent and the fractal dimension for a critical gel where the network expanded to infinite are 0.50 and 2.0. This suggests that MPWPC solutions form a fractal network at all concentrations studied. This would be consistent with the observation from our previous work that MPWPC solutions contain large flocs of smaller particles that would show fractal behaviour over a wide

range of length scales and concentrations both above and below the crossover
 concentration. For PDWPC-A and PDWPC-B eqn. 2 predicts low d_f values
 below the crossover concentration, and value around 1.6-1.7 above this.
 Below the crossover concentration, it seems likely that open extended
 structures form by association between PDWPC-A and PDWPC-B particles.
 PDWPC-A and PDWPC-B (and MPWPC) also showed strong strain overshoot
 indicating strong interactions between the particles, and this may lead to the
 tendency for more extended aggregates below the crossover concentration.
 For PDWPC-C and PDWPC-D the solutions exhibit fractal structures that
 become more compact (d_f increases from 1.6 to 2.3 for PDWPC-C and from
 1.9 to 2.3 for PDWPC-D) with increasing concentration. This suggests that a
 more rubber-like (Macosko, 1994; Rao, 2007) and denser structure (Ikeda &
 Nishinari, 2001a; Vilgis & Winter, 1988) forms at higher protein concentrations.
 Invalidity of the power law was also found at low frequencies for both of
 PDWPC-C and PDWPC-D gels, thus indicating that the network of the proteins
 had a finite length scale. According to the interpretation of mechanical spectra
 by Vilgis & Winter (1988) the frequency, ω , of the oscillations can be related to
 the length scale, L of the fractal network as $\omega^{-1} \propto t \propto L^d$, where t is the time
 for relaxation and d is determined by diffusion of the polymers. Consequently,
 a limiting characteristic frequency, which defines the largest length scale of the
 gel, can be obtained. This is defined by the frequency at which linear scaling of
 G'/G'' with ω stops/starts. From Figures 6 and 7 the characteristic frequencies

for PDWPC-C and PDWPC-D were found to be the same at 0.02 rad/s, indicating the same length scale of the self-similar network of these two denatured protein solutions.

Many foods systems are acidic in pH, a situation that leads to inhibition of growth of spoilage bacteria. The pH also has an effect on protein as they contain acidic and basic amino acid groups, and at a certain pH, the isoelectric point or pI, the net charge they have is neutral. Therefore, the pH might be expected to influence the interactions and structure of solutions of proteins and partially denatured proteins. Since WPC is a mixture of proteins containing mainly β -lactoglobulin as well as α -lactalbumin and bovine serum albumin (BSA), each of which have different isoelectric points (Bryant & McClements, 1998; de Wit & Klarenbeek, 1984; Kinsella & Whitehead, 1988), a definition of the isoelectric point (pI) of WPC is complicated. Marinova *et al.* (2009) proposed a concept of 'effective' pI for WPC and suggested that it is about 4.2 where the ζ -potential of the proteins is zero. In previous work we have measured the pI of Lacprodan 87 as 4.5. To test the effect of acidic pH on the MPWPC and PDWPC solutions, acetic acid was added to lower the pH to 4.5 to approach the pI of proteins and decrease the charges on the protein surface.

The effect of lowering the pH on G' and G'' of the PDWPCs at a concentration of 21% (w/w) are illustrated in Figure 8. Both G' and G'' increased for all samples when the pH was reduced to the pI, suggesting strengthening of the

structure and increased interaction between protein particles, most likely from a reduction in electrostatic repulsion (Elofsson, Dejmek, Paulsson & Burling, 1997; Goodwin & Hughes, 2008; Ikeda, Foegeding & Hagiwara, 1999). For MPWPC, G' is always higher than G'' at pH 4.5, and the dependence of G' and G'' on ω is relatively weak as it was at the higher pH (Figure 3) indicating that the solid-like physical gel structure of the MPWPC is maintained at pH 4.5. Cox-Merz plots for MPWPC at pH 4.5 show that the solutions do not adhere to the Cox-Merz rule, the same as at the higher pH, with the complex viscosity higher than the shear viscosity at all frequencies. The lack of adherence to the Cox-Merz rule indicates stronger interfloc forces, and thus, stiffer aggregating structure of MPWPC at low pH (Macosko, 1994; Rao, 2007). Both the complex and shear viscosity at pH 4.5 are higher than that at the higher pH.

For PDWPC A and PDWPC B there is a weaker dependence of G' on ω at pH 4.5, and G' is always greater than G'' suggesting a strengthening of the gel structure (Figure 8). The Cox-Merz rule solutions is also not followed for PDWPC A and PDWPC B at pH 4.5 (Figure 9), whereas the rule is followed at higher pH. More obvious violations of the Cox-Merz rule are seen for the acidic solutions compared to those at natural pH of the protein solution, where the violations are only present at low frequencies and shear rates. Therefore, strain- susceptible structure of protein aggregates could be hypothesised to form in the acidic solutions (Ikeda & Nishinari, 2001a). The complex viscosity at pH 4.5 is always higher than at the higher pH for both PDWPC A and B, but the

shear viscosity shows unusual behaviour. For both PDWPC A and B, the shear viscosity at pH 4.5 at low shear rates is higher than at the higher pH (Figure 9). However, as shear rate increases the shear viscosity for PDWPC A becomes the same as that at the higher pH, but for PDWPC B there is a crossover and shear viscosity at higher shear rates is lower for pH 4.5. A possible explanation for this is that as well as altering the interactions between particles, a lower pH also causes changes to the internal structure of the particles for PDWPC A and B. It is possible that the particle swells at low pH and become more sensitive to disruption due to high shear rates. At pH 4.5 the proteins will be close to the isoelectric point, and the proteins may flocculate in the absence of electrostatic repulsion. These flocs are likely to be shear sensitive, and will break up at higher shear rates leading to shear thinning behaviour.

For both PDWPC-C and PDWPC-D both G' and G'' increase at the lower pH. PDWPC-C and PDWPC-D exhibited larger complex viscosity at pH of 4.5 than at natural pH, while there was no change in the shear viscosity, except at low shear rates, where aggregates of proteins were supposed to be formed and incompletely disrupted (Renard et al., 1999). Such observations suggest that the gel formed by polymeric denatured protein is strengthened at pH 4.5 since the electrostatic repulsions were reduced, but the flowing units remained the same as those at natural pH when the gel structure was disrupted by large strains.

A power law was found to hold for the solutions of all PDWPC solutions at pH 4.5, but with smaller values of n (Table 2) and higher fractal dimensions. The lower values of n (slope) of the G' vs ω graphs (Figure 8) at pH 4.6 indicate a reduced frequency dependence of G' and reveal a more solid-like behaviour of the solutions (Goodwin & Hughes, 2008; Macosko, 1994; Rao, 2007). These more solid-like properties could be due to the denser packing of the proteins in the solutions.

Since there is no net charge on the protein surfaces at pI , hydrophobic interactions and van der Waals attractions will predominate the electrostatic repulsions between protein molecules and flocs, which causes the further aggregation and flocculation of proteins (Ikeda et al., 1999; Verheul, Pedersen, Roefs, & de Kruif, 1999). Increased hydrodynamic interactions between protein flocs with larger volumes at pH of 4.5 would account for the increases in viscosity of MPWPC and PDWPC solutions.

The phenomenon observed here is similar to cold gelation of whey proteins observed by other researchers (Bryant & McClements, 1998). These are produced by heating under similar conditions to the PDWPC's (pH close to 7, temperatures above 70 °C) at low salt and low protein concentrations to prevent protein aggregation and gelation (Barbut & Foegeding, 1993). The solutions of these proteins can be induced to thicken or gel by addition of salts (Barbut & Foegeding, 1993), or reduction of pH (Alting et al, 2004). The critical difference between previously reported cold-gelling WPCs and the PDWPC's

studied here is that higher protein concentrations (20-26% total solids) can be processed compared to cold-gelling WPCs. This is due to monitoring and control of the denaturation process that ensures over aggregation and gelation does not occur. This makes the process economically feasible for production of PDWPC's.

Conclusion

The viscoelastic properties of solutions of PDWPC aggregates exhibit a complex dependence on the protein concentrations and microstructure of the particles. The solution behaviour of PDWPC's differs from and is more complex than both WPC and MPWPC, differences that can be explained by structural differences between MPWPC and PDWPC protein particles that lead to differences in the way they interact. Aggregated particles with open, fibril/tubule-like structures, such as found in PDWPC-D have more solid like behaviour, whilst compact aggregates such as found in PDWPC-A and -B have a more liquid-like structure. The rheological behaviour of the PDWPCs is strongly concentration and frequency dependent, with changes between more-liquid like and more solid-like behaviour occurring as protein concentration increases, and with a change from long timescale (low frequency) to short timescale (high frequency) deformations. The PDWPCs exhibit a complex rheological behaviour which suggests they could be versatile thickening, texturizing and fat replacement ingredients that will offer food manufacturers

554 greater control over the texture of formulated fluid foods.

555

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Table Legends

Table 1 – Power law exponent, m , for the concentration dependence of G' for different protein samples.

Table 2 – Power law exponent, n , from the scaling of G' , G'' or η^* with frequency (ω) and the fractal dimension percolation theory (eqn. 1) or eqn. 2.

Figure Legends

Figure 1 - Strain dependence measured at 1 Hz of elastic, G' (●), and viscous, G'' (○) moduli of protein product solution at a protein concentration of 21% (w/w).

Figure 2 Log-log plot of the concentration dependence of G' in linear viscoelastic region for WPC, MPWPC, PDWPC-A, PDWPC-B, PDWPC-C, PDWPC-D solutions

Figure 3 – Frequency sweep and Cox-Merz plots of MPWPC solutions.

Figure 4 - Frequency sweep and Cox-Merz plots of PDWPC-A solutions.

Figure 5 - Frequency sweep and Cox-Merz plots of PDWPC-B solutions.

Figure 6 - Frequency sweep and Cox-Merz plots of PDWPC-C solutions.

Figure 7 - Frequency sweep and Cox-Merz plots of PDWPC-D solutions.

Figure 8 - Comparison of the frequency dependence of G' and G'' for PDWPC solutions (21% w/w) at pH4.5 and at the natural pH of the solution.

Figure 9 - Comparison of the shear rate dependence of shear viscosity (η) and frequency dependence of complex viscosity (η^*) for PDWPC solutions (21% w/w) at pH4.5 and at the natural pH of the solution.

738 **Table 1**

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	Concentration dependence (<i>m</i>)		Crossover concentration (<i>C</i> [*]) (%)
	Above <i>C</i> [*]	Below <i>C</i> [*]	
WPC	-	-	-
MPWPC	0.59	5.68	12
PDWPC-A	0.47	5.90	16
PDWPC-B	0.60	6.05	16
PDWPC-C	0.40	12.04	12
PDWPC-D	0.47	12.90	12

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741 **Table 2**

Protein Product	Mean n	d_f Percolation theory (Stauffer, 1989)	d_f Screened excluded volume (Muthkumar, 1989)
MPWPC			
14%	0.20 ± 0.10	14.6 ± 4.8	2.2 ± 0.1
16%	0.20 ± 0.00	13.0 ± 3.0	2.2 ± 0.1
18%	0.20 ± 0.10	13.8 ± 5.4	2.2 ± 0.1
21%	0.30 ± 0.10	9.3 ± 2.7	2.1 ± 0.1
pH4.5 (21%)	0.19 ± 0.03	-	2.3 ± 0.0
PDWPC-A			
14%	1.18 ± 0.34	1.0 ± 0.7	1.0 ± 0.4
16%	0.95 ± 0.22	1.3 ± 0.7	1.1 ± 0.4
18%	0.62 ± 0.02	2.8 ± 0.1	1.6 ± 0.0
21%	0.60 ± 0.02	3.0 ± 0.2	1.7 ± 0.0
pH4.5 (21%)	0.27 ± 0.03	-	2.1 ± 0.0
PDWPC-B			
14%	0.85 ± 0.08	1.5 ± 0.3	1.3 ± 0.1
16%	0.73 ± 0.06	2.1 ± 0.3	1.5 ± 0.1
18%	0.57 ± 0.03	3.3 ± 0.3	1.7 ± 0.0
21%	0.36 ± 0.04	6.5 ± 0.9	2.0 ± 0.1
pH4.5 (21%)	0.14 ± 0.01	-	2.3 ± 0.0
PDWPC-C			
14%	0.47 ± 0.01	4.4 ± 0.1	1.9 ± 0.0
16%	0.31 ± 0.02	7.6 ± 0.5	2.1 ± 0.0
18%	0.17 ± 0.00	15.6 ± 0.0	2.3 ± 0.0
21%	0.19 ± 0.01	14.1 ± 0.5	2.3 ± 0.0
pH4.5 (21%)	0.13 ± 0.01	-	2.3 ± 0.0
PDWPC-D			
14%	0.63 ± 0.02	2.8 ± 0.2	1.6 ± 0.0
16%	0.33 ± 0.04	7.2 ± 1.0	2.1 ± 0.1
18%	0.27 ± 0.02	9.3 ± 0.9	2.2 ± 0.0
21%	0.19 ± 0.02	13.6 ± 1.2	2.3 ± 0.0
pH4.5 (21%)	0.16 ± 0.01	-	2.3 ± 0.0

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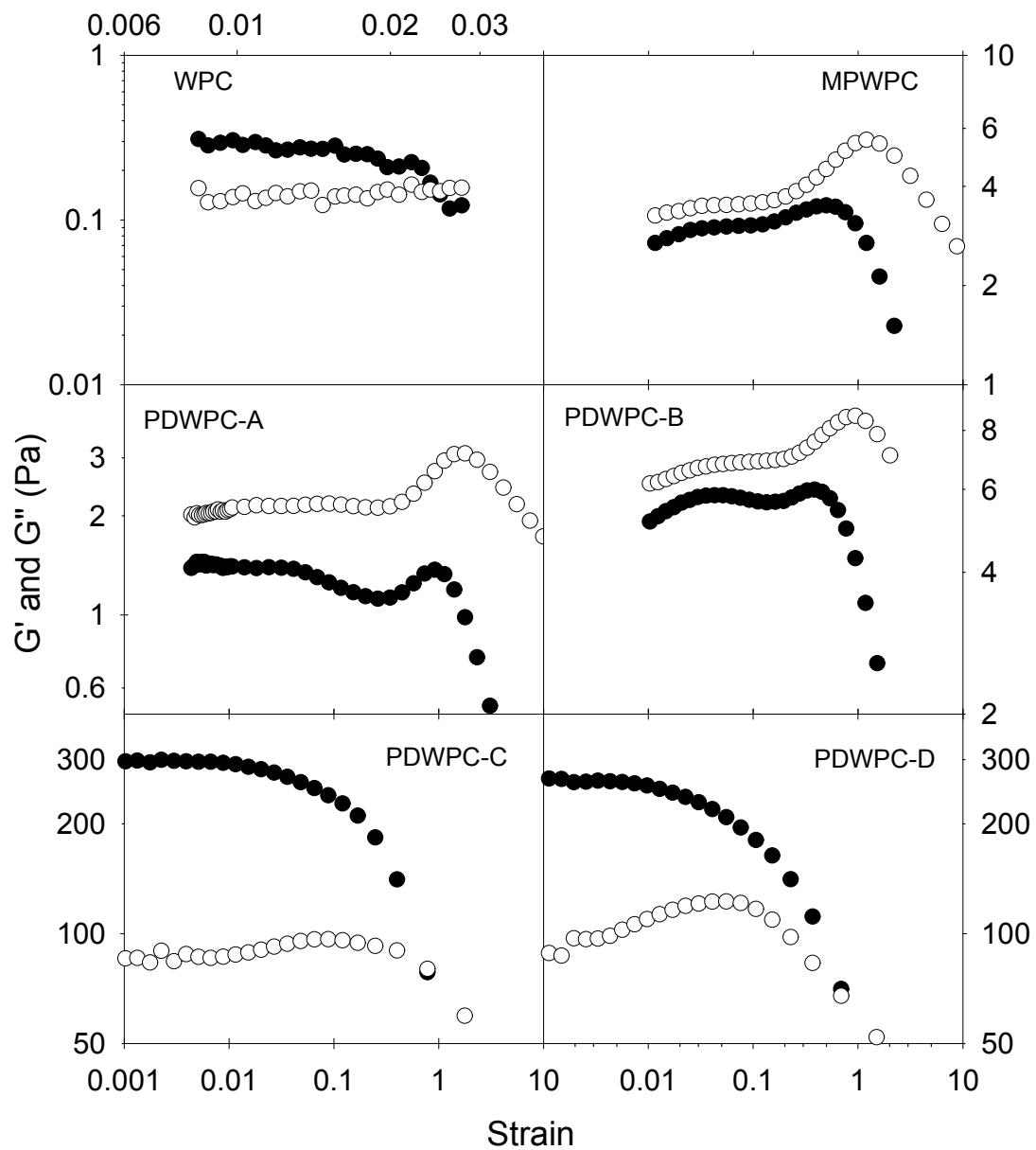


Figure 1

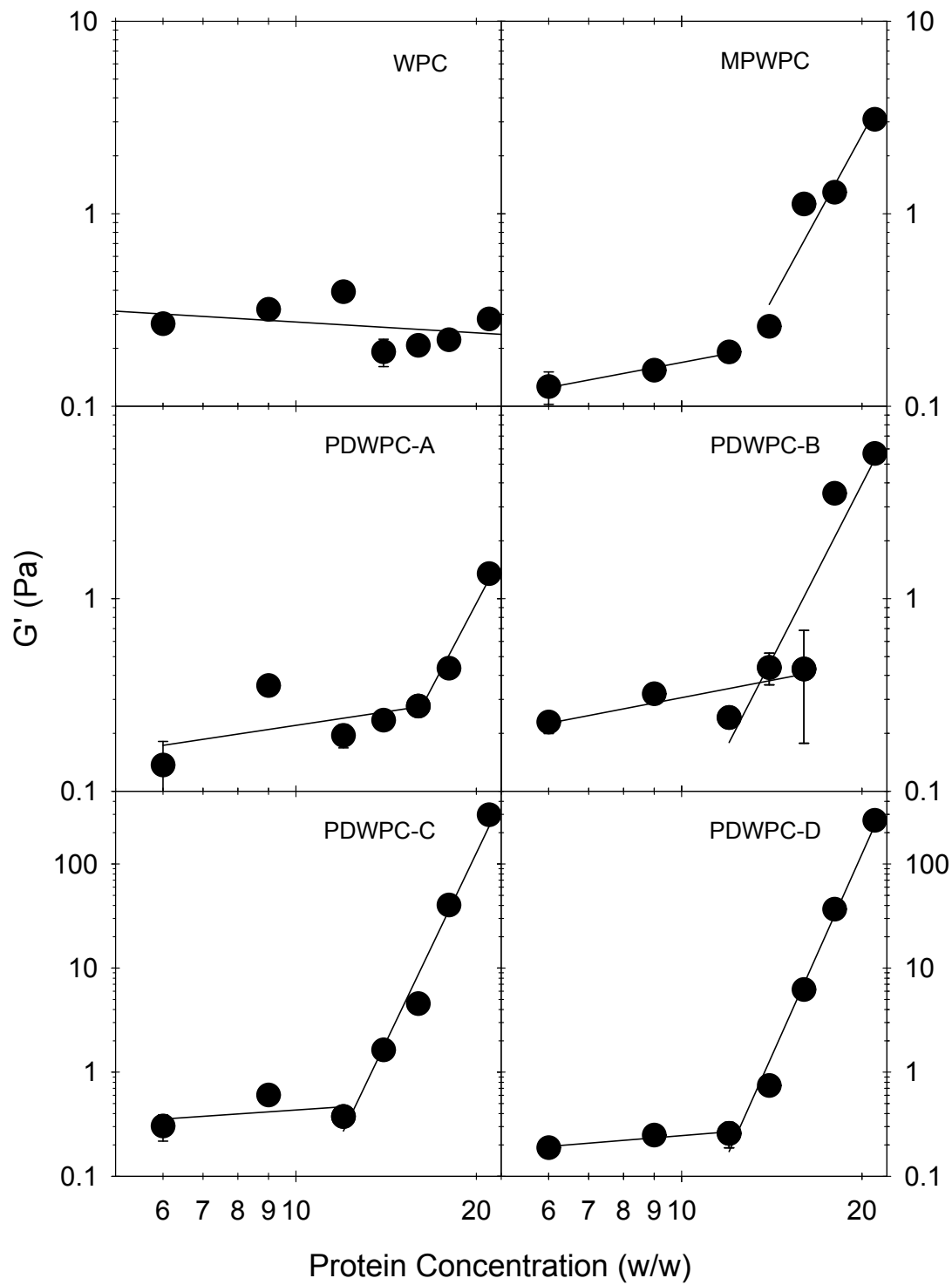
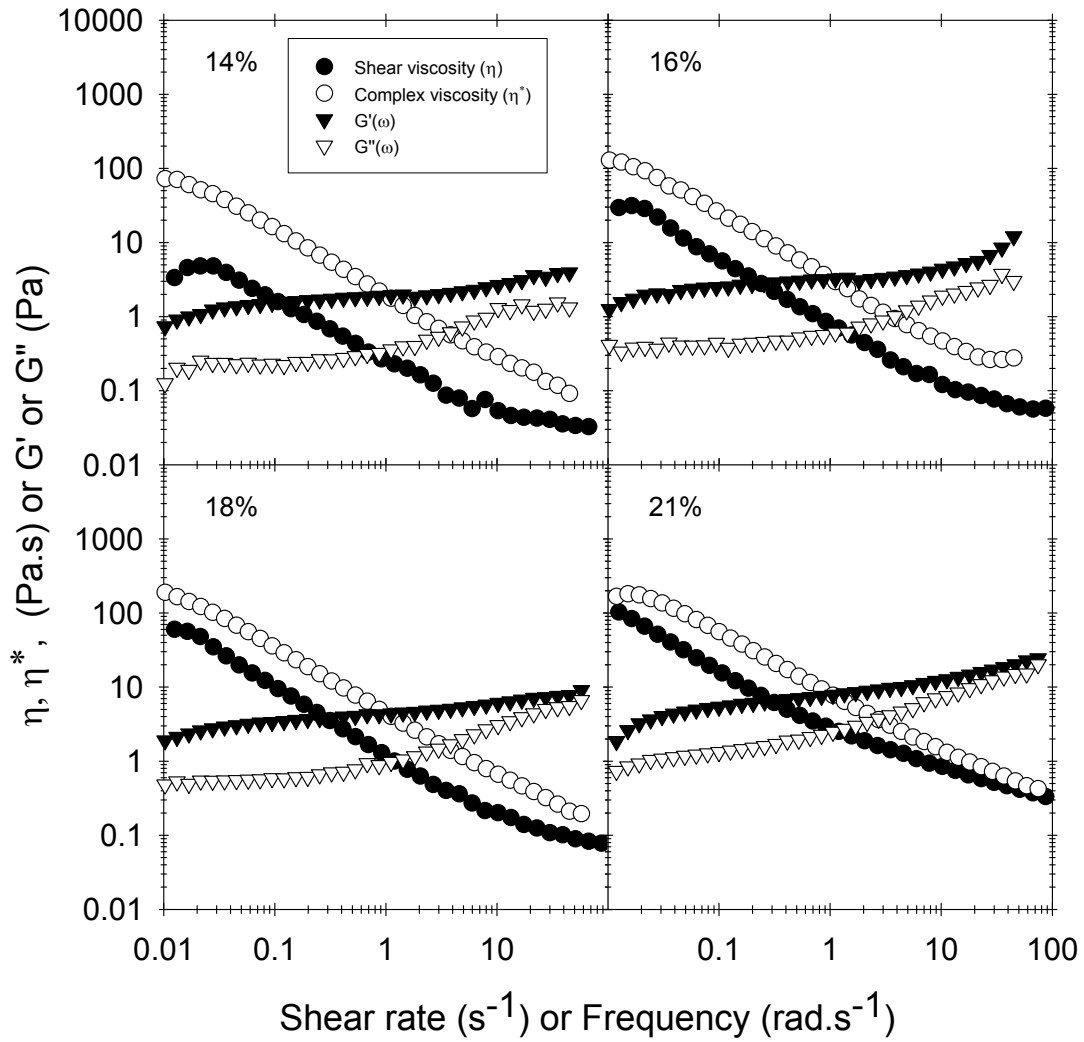


Figure 2.

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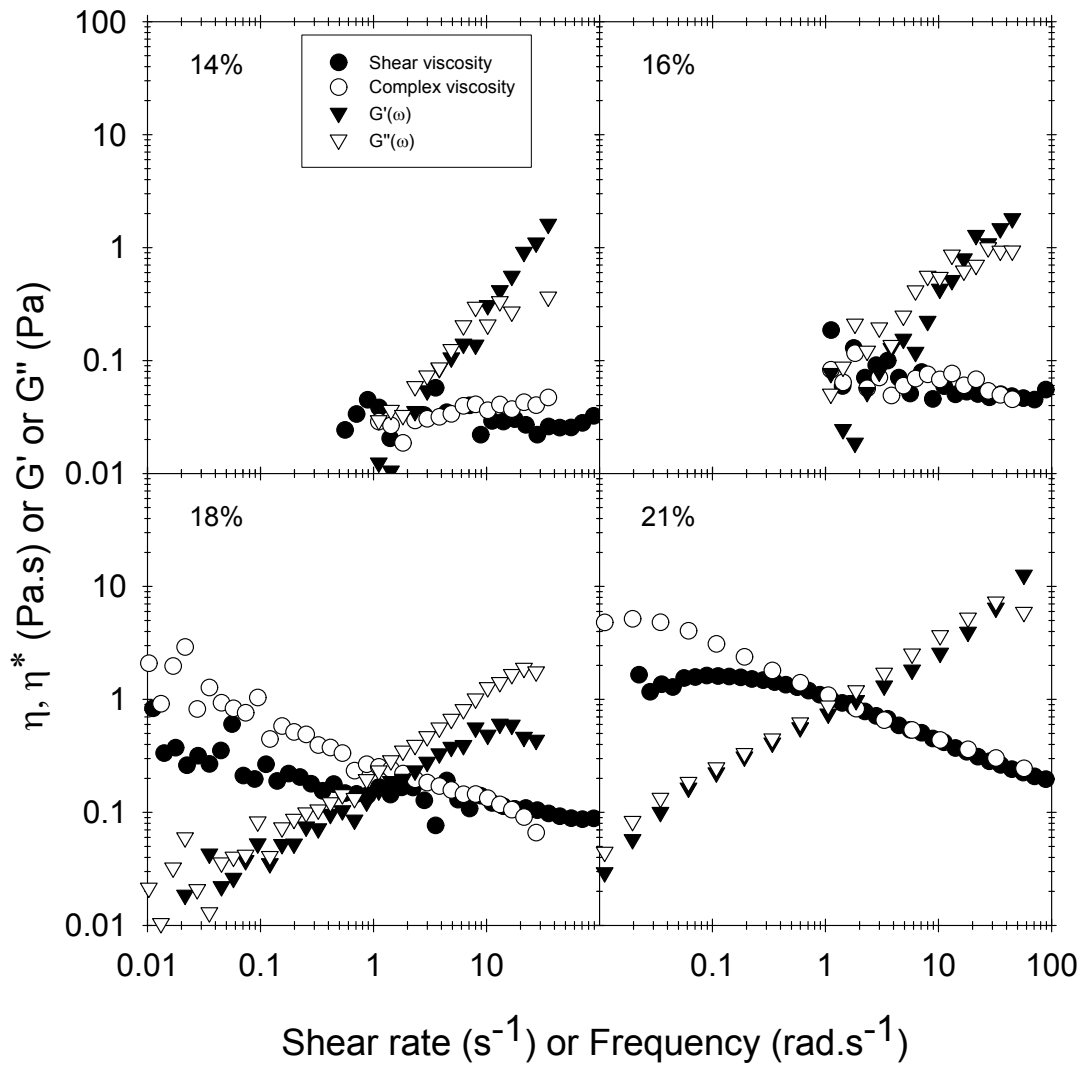
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763 **Figure 3**

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768 **Figure 4**

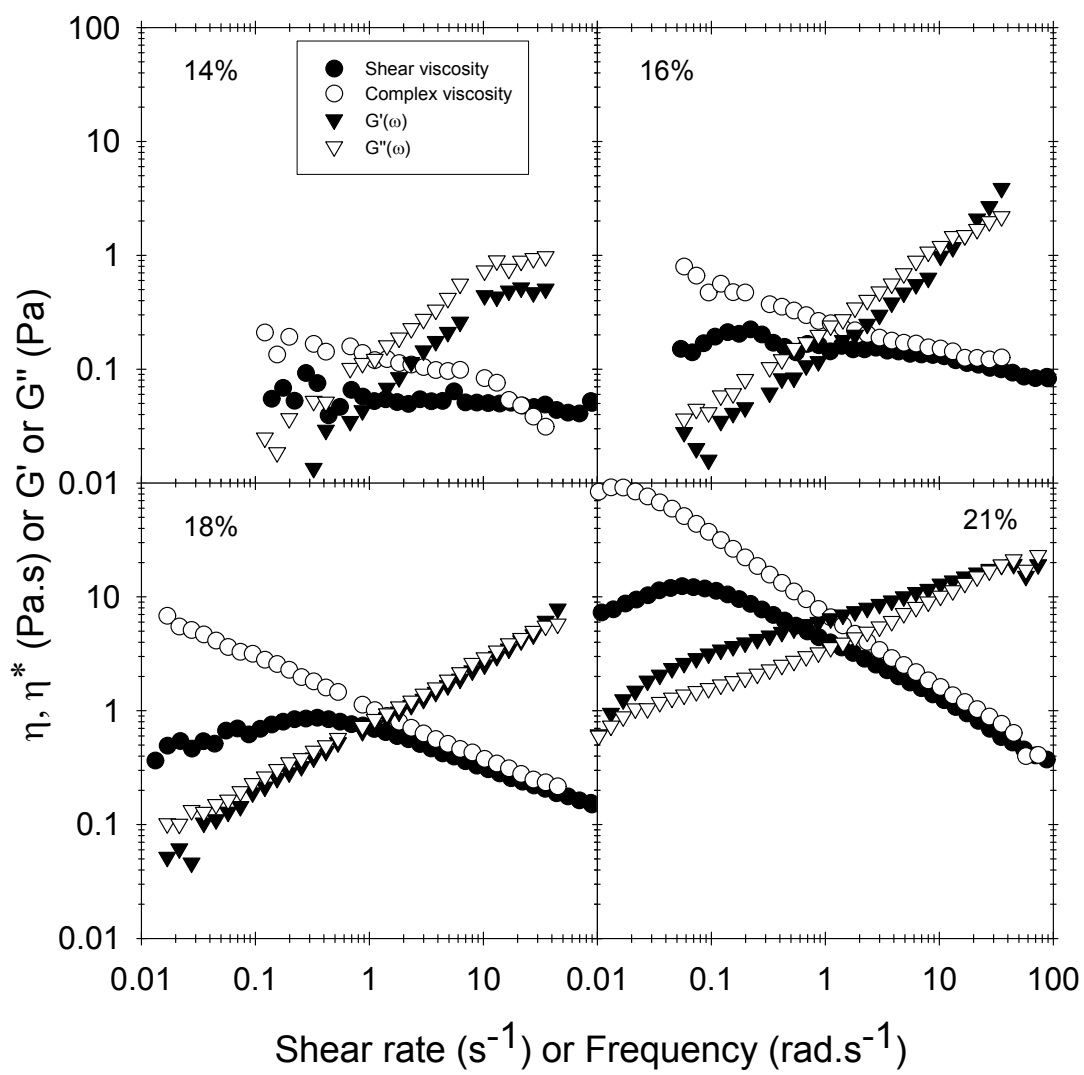
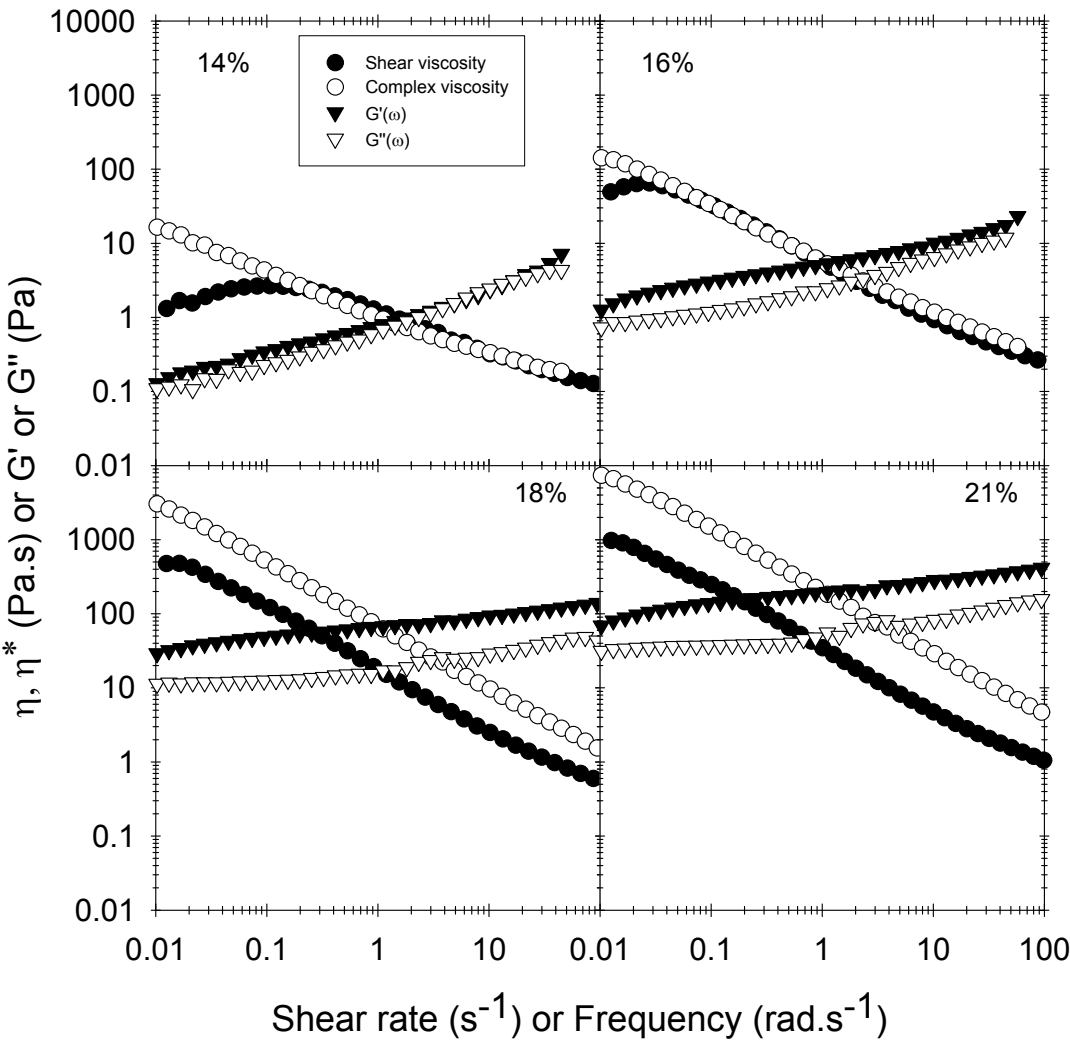


Figure 5



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775 **Figure 6**

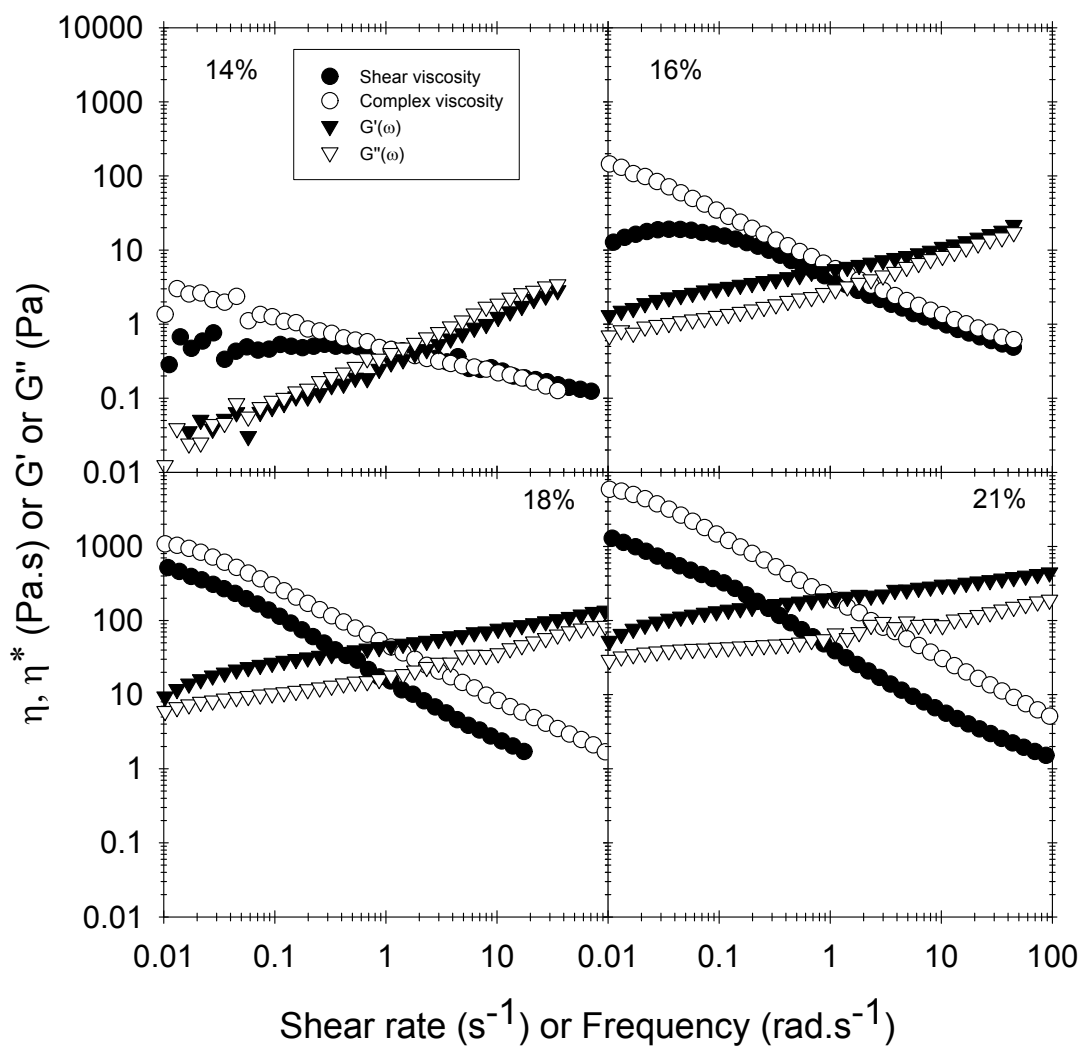


Figure 7

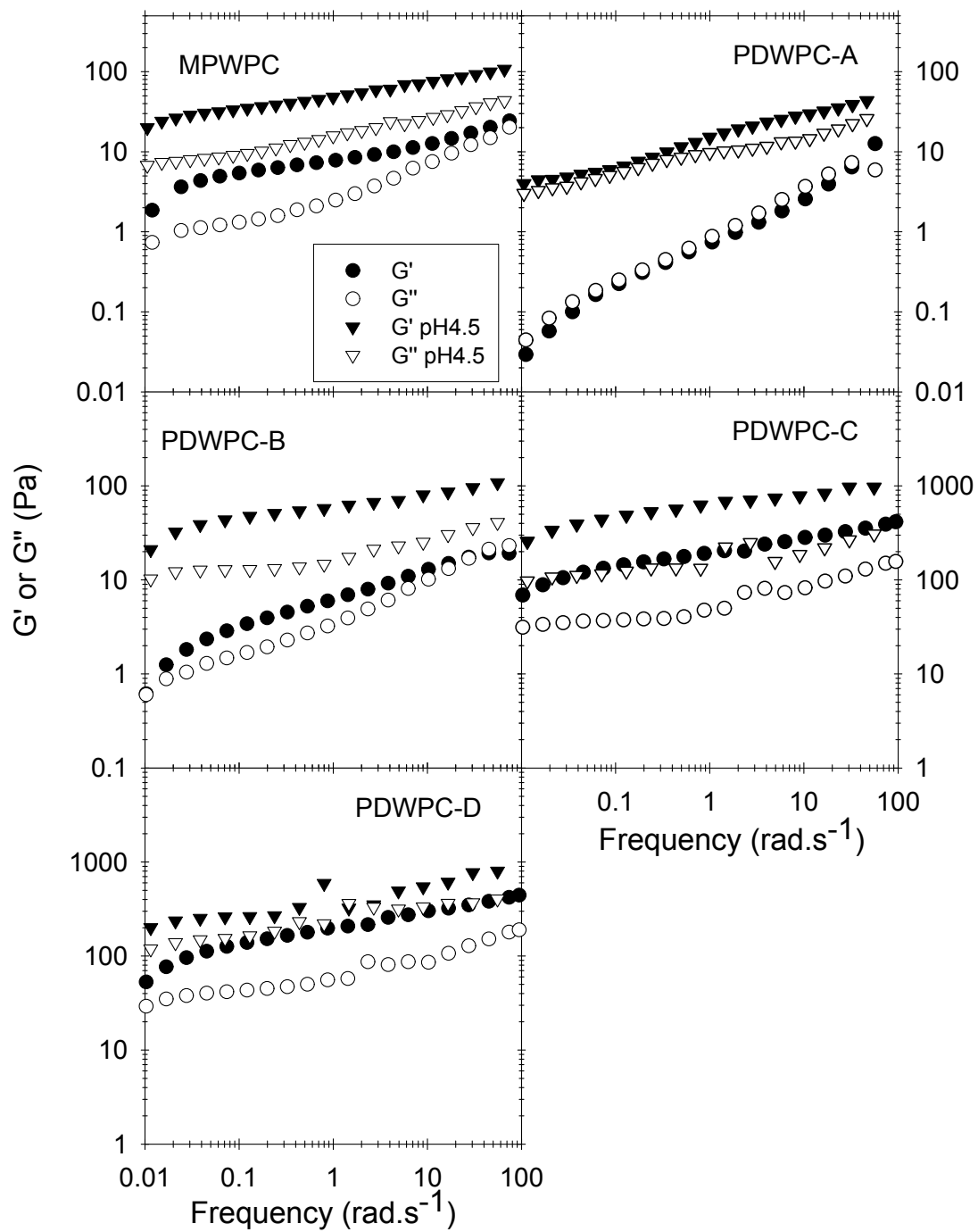


Figure 8

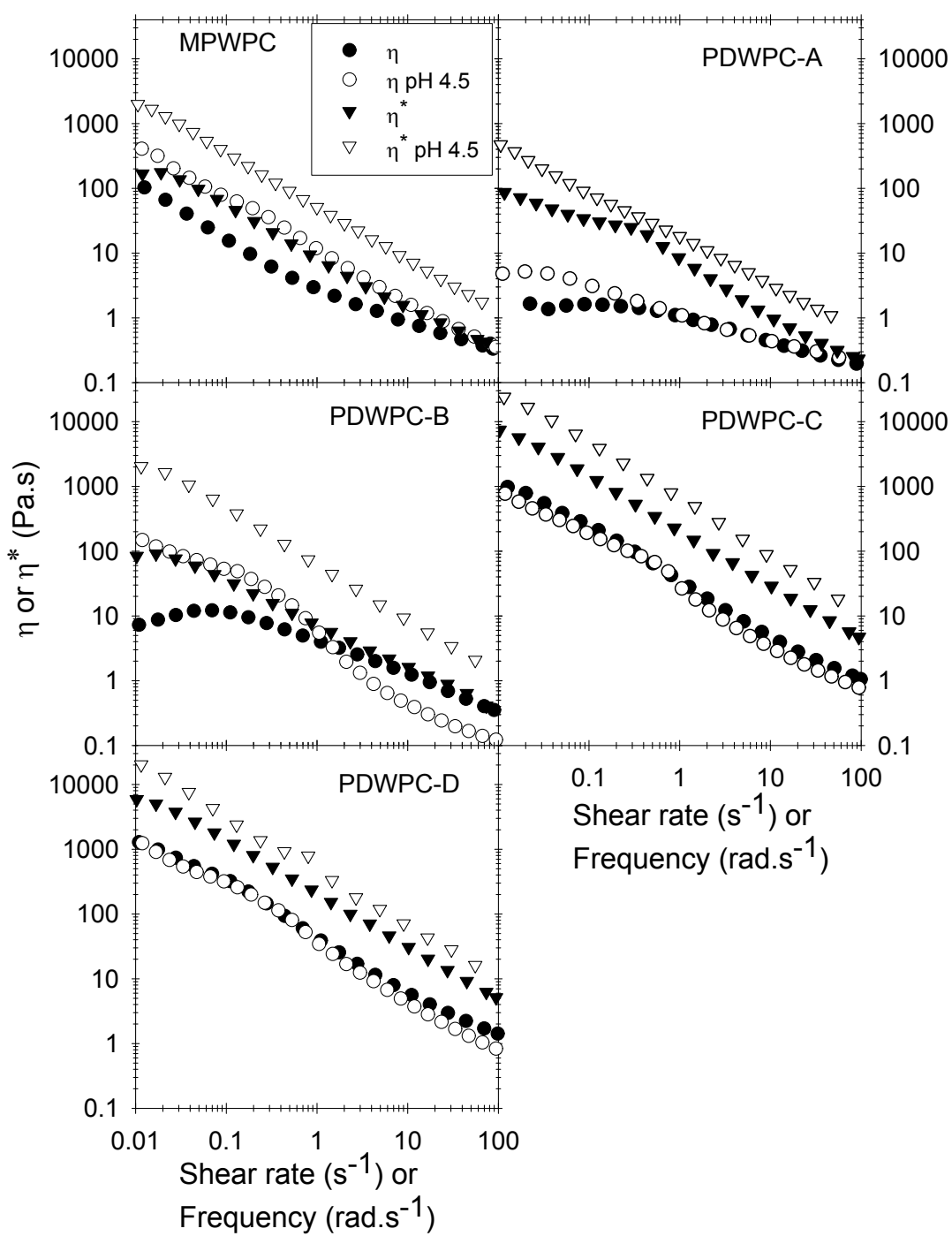


Figure 9

Highlights

- PDWPCs can be classified based on the viscoelastic properties of their solutions
- PDWPCs with compact particles exhibit strong strain overshoot and form weak gels
- PDWPCs which have open, porous particles show weak strain overshoot
- PDWPCs with open particles form weak gels or strong gels depending on concentration
- All PDWPCs form fractal aggregates in solution